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## The Value of Counselor Services in the Elementary School

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THE VALUE OF COUNSELOR SERVICES

IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

by

Maxine M. Allred

A report submitted in partial fulfillment  
of the requirements for the degree

of

MASTER OF EDUCATION

in

Counseling Psychology

Plan B

UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY  
Logan, Utah

1971

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## INTRODUCTION

Thus, the school is charged with the responsibility of attending not only to the "whole child" in a "child-centered situation," but to the creation in each child of a healthy personality, comprising moral ideals, clear and realistic vocational goals, the necessary knowledges and skills for his social functioning, and the foundations of an emotional maturity that will protect him against the development of clinical symptoms. (Shoben, 1964, p. 55-56)

One need only study current statistics concerning patients in mental hospitals, the emotionally ill, the number of suicides each year, disturbed children in school, alcoholics, juvenile delinquents, drug addicts, etc., to be made aware that a great number of individuals in our society do not reflect characteristics of a healthy development.

It is as a result of some frustrating, yet rewarding, years of classroom teaching experience in trying to plan and provide for experiences that would most satisfactorily meet the needs--sometimes undefined, sometimes vague, always unique--of individual students that the writer has become interested in what supportive services a counselor might offer the elementary school program. The concerns of children may not be as obvious as those of adolescents, but they are no less important. It was supposed that the counselor would be just as valuable in the elementary school as he was in the secondary. Later experience in secondary school counseling has emphasized, for the writer, the tragic waste of undeveloped human resource with underlying maladaptive



patterns, which in many cases obviously had their beginnings during the childhood years.

Research studies by Dinkmeyer (1966) and Rogers and others (1948) illustrate the significance of early behavior patterns in predicting achievement as well as future behavior. Kagan and Moss (1962) have found that during the first four years of contact with the school and peer environment, from ages six to ten, behavioral tendencies are crystallized which appear to be maintained through young adulthood.

At no place is the problem so acute as in the elementary classroom. Already charged to provide a "firm foundation in the fundamentals of learning," the elementary teacher is reminded that "dropouts originate in the elementary school," and that more pre-teens suffer from hypertension diseases than ever before, and that patterns of personality development become fairly stable in early adolescence. (Smith and Eckerson, 1966a, p. 2)

A review of the literature emphasizes that the early elementary years are very crucial to learning, and, according to Stripling and Lane (1964), there is a growing recognition that the elementary school teacher, however competent, cannot be all things to all pupils.

The teaching assignment is extremely challenging with the realization that our schools are not selective, eliminating those who do not qualify for certain learnings, but developmental, providing experiences adapted to the individual needs of all children. (Los Angeles Superintendent, 1965).

Elementary guidance activities in the schools have been carried

on by sensitive teachers for a number of years. However, it has been only during the past two decades that they have received a great deal of emphasis. The 1960 White House Conference recommended:

That guidance and counseling begin in the elementary school with educational and vocational planning based on early, continuous and expanded testing and diagnostic appraisal of each child to identify abilities, weaknesses and problems, mental, physical and emotional, and

That the ratio of students to elementary school counselors be 600:1. (White House Conference on Children and Youth, 1960, p. 25, 26)

As a result of the National Defense Education Act of 1958, which was revised in 1964 to extend financial support to guidance programs in the elementary schools, scores of "pilot" programs were organized across the nation. The publication of the Elementary Guidance and Counseling Journal was begun in 1967, and an increasing number of journal articles on the subject have appeared in other periodicals as well. Emphasis on early childhood education has been prompted by research in other areas. The previous lack of emphasis has apparently been due in part to the lack of reliable and acceptable research on which to base guidelines for the organization and implementation of guidance programs and services and partly due to the lack of financial support.

Stefflre (1965) pointed out that the field of elementary counseling is seriously lacking in research evidence. As a result, he noted that the value of what is being done cannot be demonstrated. Agreement on who is doing the work or even what needs to be done seems impossible.

Stefflre further stated:

Certainly there are those who believe fervently that if guidance is good, it is good at all levels. There are those also who think that if it is difficult to cure "maladjustment" it is better to prevent it, and the way to prevent it is to work with students at the youngest possible age. (Stefflre, 1963, p. 387)

According to Meeks (1962, p. 83), ". . . the purpose of counseling--a more realistic self-concept and changed behavior--is just as pertinent in elementary guidance as in secondary guidance."

Gum has indicated further the importance of early attention.

. . . if we really believe that all our youth need to be educated, if talent at all levels is to be conserved and utilized, if every child should be enabled to develop to his fullest potential, then it is inescapable that we must do much more than we are doing to facilitate fully rounded development--cognitive, emotional, personal-social, and physiological. (Gum, 1967, p. 3)

Research appears to support these views, with some reservations as to research technique, as referred to later in this paper, and with the qualification that guidance functions and services must be organized in view of existing needs unique to each school system.

### Objective

It was not the plan to review the organization of elementary school guidance programs nor to try to determine what the counselor's role in this broad service should be. Rather, the basic question concerned the results of research studies which reflect trends in guidance as to the value of counselor services made available to the elementary school child.

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A great deal has been written recently regarding counseling in the elementary school. Texts for use in elementary counselor preparation courses are making an appearance. Because the elementary school counselor has only recently been given much concentrated attention, his identity is now in the process of "becoming." This paper will consider the current trends suggested by the literature in theory and philosophy, approaches to guidance and counseling in the elementary school, counseling objectives, counselor functions, professional preparation, and research in an attempt to suggest what might be considered the value of counselor services in the elementary school.

### Theory and philosophy

According to Cottingham<sup>1</sup> (1967), there have been only a few attempts at delineating theories which are uniquely applicable to counseling with children. This is due to a number of factors. Of primary importance is the fact that there is little empirical research on the nature and value of guidance and counseling at any level.

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<sup>1</sup>Cottingham is currently conducting research through a grant from the U. S. Office of Education for a position paper on the theoretical basis for guidance in the elementary school.

Combs (1954, p. 228) suggested that traditional theories are based on the ". . . process of learning rather than . . . people who learn," and pointed out that the application of theory is difficult due to the small and isolated aspects of problems studied as compared to the complex nature of personalities. The difficulty of securing adequate research data has been suggested by Meyer (1967, p. 6), who stated that ". . . broad-scale studies in naturalistic settings are likely to yield inaccurate findings," while on the other hand, ". . . knowledge gained in artificial laboratory settings may not apply when other influences are permitted to operate." Combs (1954) pointed out that theory which applies only under laboratory conditions is of little help in solving a counselor's practical problems.

Although a counseling theory for use in elementary school counseling is indefinite, it has been pointed out by Dinkmeyer (1968) that there is an urgent need for analyzing the contributions of various approaches.

McCarthy (1966, p. 11) stated, "the concept of Linguistic Relativity offers one approach to the analysis and development of counseling theory," and Dinkmeyer (1968) believes that consideration of the Adlerian theory will encourage the counselor not only to study causes but to go beyond to an awareness of purposes. Arbuckle (1963) aptly cautioned that theories should not be viewed as determiners of human action but rather should be a systematic explanation which comes as a result of observation. Thus emphasis would be placed on the

individual rather than his environment.

Cottingham (1965, p. 344) has reviewed evidence that a basic theory is emerging from the literature. He suggested these features may be considered.

. . . many agree that elementary guidance has as its purpose the modification of both pupil and teacher attitudes, a number of writers have indicated that this objective is obtained by provision of services to children directly, as well as by services to children indirectly, . . . and . . . it seems to be agreed that the elementary guidance worker, whether he be called consultant or counselor or merely a helping teacher, should not be expected to carry out such functions as teaching, discipline, administrative detail, or other routine tasks, except under emergency conditions.

Although pioneering efforts toward the building of a theoretical foundation for elementary school counseling have been made, Van Hoose (1968, p. 164) maintained that it would be the major responsibility of the elementary school counselor and counselor educators to develop the counseling theory most appropriate to working with elementary school children ". . . since a sound theory requires practice as well as research." Stefflre (1965, p. 11) further added that "theory building will need to be a constant process for those who remain in counseling."

At this point it appears that a future theory is dependent upon contributions to be gained from evaluation of current projects and those of the future, which should employ better designed methods of research and study in the areas of child development and behavior. There is, at the present time, a lack of agreed upon principles by which processes

and outcomes can be explained and thus the contribution of the counselor to the total elementary school program objectively evaluated.

#### Approaches to elementary school guidance and counseling

Approaches to elementary school guidance programs over the years have included (as paraphrased from Cottingham, 1963, p. 8-9):

A services approach in which it was believed that with some modification the secondary guidance services could merely be transplanted into the elementary school.

A teaching approach has been a position which endorses the "guidance in good teaching" concept.

The mental health or problem-centered approach assumed focus on mental health problems rather than the needs of all children.

A school psychologist or specialist approach involves a highly trained clinician or specialist as the primary resource person to assist from time to time as needed.

The human development or child study approach assumes that a background of developmental psychology and a knowledge of children by the teacher, specialist, administrator and others working with the child are sufficient. No explanation is given, however, as to how appropriate conceptions are to be implemented.

A coordinated approach has been supported by some to bring together many activities for a more functional, a more practical approach.

An integrative or individualistic approach is stressed by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development Yearbook, not only for elementary but for various levels of guidance. The philosophy is expressed in this quotation, "Instruction is inseparable from guidance, but guidance is separable from instruction." (Cottingham, 1963, p. 9)

A variety of theories including behavioral, phenomenological, existential, ego-counseling, and social reconstruction, as well as rational therapy, have been referred to in the literature. There exists a distinct difference in the theoretical views concerning children's behavior and development and the means by which changes in behavior might be brought about. Although it appears that no one is completely accurate or inaccurate, the particular theory espoused will affect the way the counselor perceives the counselee.

Lafferty (quoted in Kaczkowski, 1968, p. 88) contrasted two types of approaches in counseling,

. . . essentially based upon the idea that some children grow up in a situation where they have never had or experienced a close relationship with a mature adult, and therefore by replacing this lack with a relationship in a psychotherapeutic situation the youngster is able to change his behavior. While this is a simply stated idea it is, perhaps, one of the most important cornerstones of the schools' current attempts to alter behavior in children. . . . Still another system may be referred to as supportive therapy, a system under which a significant or mature adult will stand with the youngster. The person essentially sympathizes and lets the youngster know that he can understand the nature of his concerns and worries. It is a sustaining form of therapy and few of its advocates maintain that it produces much in the way of drastic change in behavior. . . . This writer does not wish to infer that these are essentially ineffective



schools of thought, but rather raises the question as to whether or not we should look for other, more immediate ways of altering behavior. (Kaczkowski, 1968, p. 88)

Lafferty concluded, "there are known totally effective ways in which behavior might be altered." (Quoted in Kaczkowski, 1968, p. 88) Kaczkowski pointed out that these approaches emphasize cognition without another essential ingredient, that of emotion.

Krumboltz and Hosford (1967) have itemized the unique characteristics involved in the behavioral approach to counseling. They would apply the principles of learning and judge the counselor by the degree in which he engaged pupils in more appropriate patterns of behavior. To some counselors, this approach is just good common sense.

Barclay's study (1967) indicated that psychological personnel can initiate behavior change if they know what behavior they want to change and if they know how to apply social behavioral learning theory.

Kennedy and Thompson (1967) found that positive reinforcement led to increased attendance and marked improvement in assignment completion to lend support to the use of a behavioral model in elementary school counseling. The necessity of the counselor's understanding behavior theory and the utilization of the processes of reinforcement, modeling, etc., has been pointed out by Hansen and Stevic (1969).

However, Kemp (1967, preface) warns, "any change in behavior sought through counseling must involve the person's total value system. Such complex intangibles as will, anxiety, love, symbols, and self

concept are considered in terms of the counseling process." (Kemp, 1967, preface)

Faust (1968b) has compared the emphasis given certain counselor practices by traditional, neotraditional and developmental counselors and differentiated their positions. Although there is not as yet a well-defined theoretical model to support the developmental viewpoint, it does recognize the complex interaction of biological and environmental variables. Recent literature tends to emphasize the issues involved in a developmental or promotional<sup>1</sup> approach to both guidance programs and to counseling within them as contrasted with a remedial or curative approach.

Developmental counseling has been defined by Dinkmeyer (1968, p. 263) as "personalized learning." That is, he maintains, ". . . the child learns not only to understand himself but to become ultimately responsible for his choices and actions." Van Hoose (1968, p. 81) points out that the ". . . goals of developmental counseling are to bring about more adequate personal adjustment and increased effectiveness in dealing with the environment . . . goals which are fundamental to counseling in any situation."

With regard to developmental counseling, Myrick (n.d., p. 5) has stated:

This approach is more than a study of child growth and development. It is more than student appraisal. It is

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<sup>1</sup> A term used by Kaczkowski (1968, p. 86).

more than a recognition of developmental stages and tasks. Developmental guidance and counseling stress the optimum development of man's potential. It acknowledges that man is many things and can become many things. It recognizes that each individual because of his unique genetic heritage and interaction with his environment will develop differently from those around him and, thus, will inevitably be uniquely creative. This approach helps the individual to become aware of all his humanness, which must include both his cognitive and affective being. It promotes the concept of total awareness of one's self, and it attempts to enable a person to be more open, more flexible and more adaptive to change. It affirms that they have known and can know at the moment of behaving. Such an approach is built upon the value of human relationships. . . . it enables us to think beyond the solving of problems, beyond the identification and prevention of problems, to what man's potential might be. (Myrick, n.d., p. 5)

That the developmental approach to counseling and guidance programs is preventative in nature has been suggested by many.

According to Dinkmeyer (n.d., p. 21),

the program is not designed so much to heal disordered, perplexed, unproductive children as it is to assist other school personnel in building a new world for children in which disorder and disease have little opportunity to originate and [flourish].

In reporting to an administrator's conference, Mendelson (1968, p. 1) said, "he [counselor] works primarily with children who have normal concerns which may affect their academic, social or personal development, rather than with children in crisis situations."

Wrenn (1962, p. 183) represents the view of the majority in the field who seem to feel that it is desirable to focus upon the developmental and preventive approach rather than on the curative or remedial. He indicates that there is no question but that a minority of the students will need intensive professional help, but he questions " . . . the use

of counseling talent by taking . . . valuable insights and skills away from the great body of students who have possibilities of becoming more effective and creative individuals because of the counselor's assistance." (Wrenn, 1962, p. 183)

Faust (1968a) has proposed that a single hour of counselor time with an individual teacher may be worth thirty hours of child-counseling time. The teacher may then take his gains to thirty more children the following year.

Faust (1968a, p. 36-37) has explicitly written further:

It is indeed difficult to understand that until the society provides an emphasis that attends to all children, and on a developmental basis, each generation of that society will continue to produce great numbers of crippled, neglected learners. . . . It remains the community's responsibility, not the counselor's, to find ways and personnel especially trained to work almost wholly with children in crises.

However, some writers hold a contrasting view as to how the counselor's time should be used and with whom he should work. For example, Patterson (1969) has written that he believes what is curative or remedial at present is preventative for the future and that this should be a basis for the counselor's work with children. In opposition to making referrals for children with "crisis" problems to specialists outside the school, Patterson questions the validity of differentiating between "normal developmental" and "crisis" problems, stating that the counselor cannot legitimately withhold services from the students in need in order to meet the "developmental needs" of

"normal children." Patterson also points out that people benefit more from the counseling relationship when they face a crisis, or a problem or recognize the need for help. He suggests that there is no where else for a child to go for help, and the opportunity for a helping relationship must be made available to him in the school.

Aubrey (1968, p. 250) maintains that the counselor is in the school to help all children but that the "marginal" child with greater needs comes first according to the extent of counselor competency and child responsiveness.

Perhaps Van Hoose and others have suggested a point pertinent to those who need to decide what their particular approach might be. They stated:

Since the primary function of the elementary school is functional in nature it is questionable as to whether clinical-type services are justified. The emphasis is on the development of in-sight, self-understanding, utilization of skills and talents, relief of emotional tensions, buttressing of existing defenses, and relief of symptoms. Thus the school counselor focuses on helping all children to modify behavior in a positive manner and to enable adequate adjustment to school, peers and his environment. (Van Hoose and others, 1967, p. 78)

It appears that the particular approach taken by a counselor in the elementary school will depend upon the philosophy of the school and district in which he works as to what the identified needs and goals are. The counselor has the right, and the obligation, however, to make known his personal philosophy, for within this realm he will likely do his best work. There is also the danger that administrators

will sacrifice student need for administrative efficiency or attention to institutional problems.

### Counseling objectives

Most writers tend to feel there are particular developmental objectives that each counselor should strive for with regard to the goals set cooperatively by himself and the individuals with whom he works. Van Hoose (1968, p. 82-84) lists the following area objectives, and in the next few pages the writer will attempt to include the points of view of other writers regarding these same objectives (paraphrased):

Aiding in self-understanding. This cannot be left to chance. Young people must understand who they are and what they are capable of becoming.

Developing a healthy self concept. Behavior and performance tend to be consistent with self concept. A child learns to think and feel about himself as defined by others. It is important that he learn to make proper interpretations in order to develop a self concept realistic and favorable enough that he can accept himself.

Attaining appropriate academic development. The exploration of abilities and interests in order to build on strengths and allenate deficiencies is essential. Increased understanding of the academic self can have a positive impact on school performance.

Aiding children with vocational development. One must be prepared to function as a worker. Not only can children learn and understand the importance and effect of work upon their lives but they

receive help in gaining relevant vocational knowledge.

Learning to deal with complex interpersonal relationships.

By learning the how and why of attitudes and reactions to people in our lives, more thought and skill can be developed in approaching continual interpersonal relationships. Children learn to relate to peers and adults--exploration is done in an unthreatening atmosphere of counseling.

Alleviating personal and emotional problems. Children do have problems.

Though not exhaustive by any means, these objectives are significant. Carnegie Institute once analyzed the records of ten thousand persons. They discovered that 85 percent of success rests upon personality factors--only 15 percent of success is due to technical training (Nightingale, 1969). It is believed that these personality traits on which success depends can be, and are, learned and controlled by the individual. It is one's personal reaction to a situation or environment that determines its effect on one. What if the individual never learns to know and understand himself?

Some writers have advanced the idea that one must recognize that he is, and others must accept him as, an individual with his own particular and peculiar set of potentials. If these potentials are properly recognized, they can be realized, actualized and accomplished, thus resulting in a more satisfying personal existence and usefulness to the community.

Peters and Farwell (1967, p. 487) say, "the focus on counseling grows from a fundamental premise that the school counselor works as a catalyst to human growth and self-understanding." McCarthy (1966, p. 1) has written concerning essentially the same idea, saying:

. . . is not a knower and giver of truth but rather an unknower who through his intellectual and empathetic human skills acts as a catalyst in a process intended to allow the client to understand his relationship to life, and to answer his own questions about his problems.

Samler (1965, p. 55) feels that, "the guidance process inevitably aims at self-understanding by the client, by definition a key aspect of mental health." He points out that mature choices and the assuming of responsibility for oneself rest on this precondition. Samler terms this learning as perhaps the most important in the world and feels that it must take place before an individual attempts to relate himself to the working world. " . . . its logical place is in the elementary school." (Samler, 1965, p. 55). Samler places emphasis on a cognitive approach to training the child to use his mind in solving emotional problems, for he believes that, "as adults, such children would then naturally have recourse to self-study when they were faced with bothersome problems."

Wrenn (1962, p. 241) evidently recognized the need for individual self-understanding when he wrote:

The elementary school child early needs some appreciation of who he is and what he is capable of doing. . . . It is in the elementary school that we have the early beginning of attitudes towards school and towards self which result in either steady growth or in an attitude of resentment and



hostility which results in under-achievement and early drop-out . . ." (Wrenn, 1962, p. 241)

On the basis of research done concerning the school dropout, Schreiber (1964) has indicated developmental factors which led to the young adolescent, characterized as:

. . . one who has grown to mistrust other individuals; one who has had no significant adult figure to offer him emotional support; one who has been inculcated with the most primitive kinds of social values; one who has had to turn to peer groups in order to find someone to relate to emotionally, one who has developed feelings of isolations that lead to sporadic "acting out" in attempts to obtain those relationships; one who because of frustrations strikes back at the perceived sources of frustration--authority figures who have failed him or peer groups that have snubbed and enraged him; one who has been forced to grow overly dependent upon over-controlling maternal figures who have not permitted him to develop a self-reliance; and finally one who most of all is seeking out, albeit in an inadequate manner, ways of gratifying his need for affection and emotional warmth. (Schreiber, 1964, p. 73)

Self-understanding appears to be an appropriate goal compatible with the instructional goals of the total program, since adjustment problems result from developmental differences in responding to the tasks of school and social situations (Hansen and Stevic, 1969). Patterson (1969) suggests that a philosophical premise might be based on the fact that an individual's whole life is that of choice and that he is the best judge of himself since he alone can decide what is best for him. When one genuinely and realistically thinks, feels and is convinced regarding what is best for him, he normally acts more effectively to gain his ends.

The research of Piaget (1929) reveals that during pre-adolescence

the child begins to develop a concept of self quite distinguishable from the outer world. This is the time when the clarification of feelings, concepts, attitudes, goals and an understanding of self would be most significant. It has been suggested that so important is this aspect of development it cannot be left to incidental attention. Winters and Arent (1969) report that mature high school students lend support, effort and understanding to selected elementary school children which results in more personal self-acceptance. It is suggested by these writers that resources of non-professional aids may be developed to help meet the demand for services.

Kaczkowski (1968, p. 86) has stressed that ". . . the child needs values to evaluate things in order to develop his self-concept, which in turn affects his life style," but points out that although teachers are skillful in teaching matters of fact, values are rarely discussed in a classroom.

The importance of self-concept in learning is emphasized by the Educational Policies Commission (1960, p. 8) which issued the statement, "To learn well the things a school attempts to communicate, a child must feel a sense of personal worth. . . . It requires a feeling of adequacy to cope with the school's expectations."

The survival premise advanced by Faust (1968a) suggests that it is the safety of the person which is of first importance and that safety of the self is best experienced when esteem, affection and acceptance are communicated to it. The most crucial reinforcers are those behaviors which communicate that the person is of worth, regardless of his behavior products. The danger in the development of the concept of self lies in

experiences the child may or may not interpret validly and thus conclude:

If my safety depends on my emitting "correct" or socially acceptable behavior responses, I then live in a precarious world, for in my ignorance, lack of experience, and size, much of the time I cannot satisfy authoritarians on whom I must depend. The evidence suggests that behavior products--that is, what I do or fail to do--are more important to others, rather than my self, my identity." (Faust, 1968a, p. 225)

Faust (1968a, p. 276) further explains that it is the teacher who communicates interest in

. . . (a) what the learner "thinks" about his products and (b) what the learner "feels" about those same products. It is the self of the person which is respectfully attended to . . . . This is the reinforcer, the reward that gives the opportunity for creativity.

Peters, Shertzer and Van Hoose (1965, p. 140) quoted from a mimeographed paper by Meeks, dated 1963, in which she said, ". . . it is our firm conviction that children with poor self-concepts do not learn," and further emphasized that ". . . counseling has as its chief goal helping pupils gain a more realistic self-concept." This writer feels that children with poor self-concepts may not learn in accordance with the objectives of the school, but they do continue to learn--they learn to dislike school, certain persons in that uncomfortable environment, and negative behavior patterns. Of even more negative consequence, they learn to underestimate their own personal worth and potential.

The counselor ". . . enables the client to accept himself so he has the courage to function," according to Dinkmeyer and Dreikurs, as reported by Dinkmeyer (1968, p. 265).

Hamecheck (1968, p. 7) summarized the major conclusions of seven

self-concept studies and concluded that "underachievers learn poorly because they underestimate their ability to perform well." Thus, paradoxically, "you can do much better than you think you can if you only think so." (Hamachek, 1968, p. 7)

Dinkmeyer (1968, p.264) cites the work of McCandless in reporting that there is much evidence to support the view that the child with a poor self-concept will be more anxious, less well-adjusted, less popular, less effective, less honest and more defensive as compared with those who have more positive self-concepts.

Experimental self-concept and achievement studies, based on counseling as an improvement variable, illustrate how very difficult it is to change self-concept. Even when an individual recognizes his difficulty and decides to do something about it, the factors he has learned to anticipate apparently come into focus and he feels defeat, thus never really feeling sure he can ever be or behave any differently. Cooper-smith and a group of social scientists have found that parental attitude is the key factor in the development of high self-esteem but suggest ways the school can help to build self-esteem in its students (Cooper-smith and Silverman, 1969).

If only it were so simple that the child could be neatly packaged and each package dealt with individually! Indeed the central responsibility of the school is academic, yet self-understanding and self-concept are so much a part of the academic self it is difficult to discuss one aspect of development in and of itself. That there is a significant

relationship between academic achievement and concept of self has been shown in research referred to by Roth (1959). Gum (1967, p.1) wrote:

. . . it is becoming evident that intellectual development unaccompanied by adequate socio-emotional and healthy physiological development operates against full utilization of one's capabilities. Therefore, the current trend is for educators to advocate an integrated approach in which learning and growth are perceived as mutually interrelated in the process of enhancing the individual's full self actualization.

According to Faust (1965, p.17), however,

. . . knowing--knowing how to read, knowing how to manipulate numbers meaningfully, or other content--is most frequently the educational focus; indeed the current primary goal of tax-supported education.

Elsewhere, Faust (1968a, p.238) has also written that

in spite of what is written in educational journals and proclaimed by many teachers, in the real classroom children who do not perform well in content learning--knowing how to read, write and compute arithmetically--are for the most part condemned by peers and self, as well as by teachers, to a loss of personal esteem and value.

Faust (1968a, p.261-262) believes that important to the counselor is the fact that in the "normal" population of school children, ". . . stressful or ineffective classroom learning climates destroy the opportunity for children to ever move from the concrete level to a reasonable level of abstract behavior." Thus he suggests we have the development of "crippled learners." He suggests that such environments result in "patterns of defensive short-circuiting of the temporal, occipital and parietal lobes . . ." which ". . . become a way of dealing with ideas." But Faust (1965, p.19) also refers to maximum efficiency in cognitive functioning and states

. . . if counselors in the school setting can behave in ways

which will allow the intellects of children to function free of crippling anxiety, fear, guilt and defensive posturing, secondary gains will also be effected. (Faust, 1965, p.19)

The writer of this paper feels that Faust has made a very significant point with regard to the development of the academic self and the conditions under which this takes place in the classroom:

Children are generally exposed to learning climates where accurate responses are rewarded with praise in one form or another and incorrect responses with some sort of punitive consequence. The latter may be in the form of big, red check marks, low letter grades, and so forth. Tone of voice or facial expression may also communicate that an incorrect response has been given by the child. In the classroom, learning well, emitting the right response, (usually the teacher's or textbook's standards) becomes equated with being good, rather than bad, valued, rather than devalued. On the other hand, inaccurate responses result in consequences which communicate that the child is bad rather than good, devalued rather than valued. Survival is not as secure.

The child soon "learns" that survival is only assured if he can make the right responses. Right responses result in rewarding consequences, the maintenance or embellishment of survival status. He must give up a portion of his perceived autonomy, replacing it with the teacher's value system, standards, and expectations. To endure, he must sacrifice a portion of his identity. Such a threat to his identity elicits internal stimulus warning systems of anxiety and fear. When these become excessive, the CNS [central nervous system] is disorganized, short-circuited, or impaired in other ways. It can be understood that the consequences of rewarding the right responses in this way are, in the long run, crippling. (Faust, 1968a, p. 285)

Kagan and Moss (1962, p. 263), in a study referred to earlier, have illustrated that the child who is achieving well early in school will generally continue to do so, but they also emphasize that "there is a need to provide early encouragement for the academic achiever and to identify those who are not meeting the academic tasks at this stage of life."

Walker and Levy (1968) report on an innovation in this direction, the Gesell Developmental Examination, on which basis results determine classroom placement for perceptual training for kindergarten through third-grade children. "Trends indicate superiority of developmental placement, especially in Kindergarten and first grade. Levels of achievement are rising and referrals for special services are diminishing." Perceptual training has also been emphasized in the Kent State University School project (Heisey and Getson, 1967). The Evanston Early Identification Scale has also been developed for the purpose of screening children for possible visual or motoric perceptual and/or emotional problems. It appears that there is a recognition of the importance of early identification, with measures being taken to do something about children who may encounter difficulty in their attempts to meet the school's expectations.

In the 1968 Minford Pilot Project, sponsored by the United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, emphasis by the guidance committee was on the development of procedures for identifying potential dropouts in the fourth grade where extra assistance was given,<sup>1</sup> another evidence that strides are being made to improve for each child the chances of attaining appropriate academic development. But Hamachek (1968, p. 4) tells us that ". . . motivation to learn is a complex blend of different environments, attitudes, aspirations, and self-concepts . . . ." and that when we recognize this we are a step closer

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<sup>1</sup>Material for the identification of potential dropouts is appended to this report.

to effectively using what research tells us.

As a result of a study done on improving reading in the junior high school, Paulo (1963, p. 55) concluded:

a. The failure pattern unique to the disabled reader group had been a long-term one, originating for each child in the first grade where he was placed in the lowest group. b. This pattern of failure with its accompanying self-perception had had a markedly negative effect upon the attitudes of the disabled readers toward school and reading. c. By the time he had reached junior high school age, the disabled reader's negative attitude toward reading was firmly fixed as an integral part of his total personality.

That academic nonachievement, especially in reading, is just cause for concern has been referred to by Schreiber (1964, p. 168-169), in these words:

The mechanism of reading disability operates variously to produce loss of self-confidence, if not indeed of self-respect. It may result as a secondary effect of emotional disturbance, but it is also a primary factor in itself in generating and spreading personal distress. This it does through faulty expectations by parents and teachers or the heartless criticism of peers. The faulty expectations may be excessive, or they may be negative out of fear or resentment by a parent. The etiology of every case has its own special characteristics, but reading disability can be and is in many cases the primary source of the difficulty. (Schreiber, 1964, p. 168-169)

It has been fairly well established that learning is dependent upon physical maturation as well as tolerance for frustration and the pleasure of mastery. Thus, for each age level certain possibilities for and characteristics of self-education correspond. Faust (1968a, p. 282) cautions, however, that change in "so-called" developmental stages will occur due to the fact that they are " . . . simply the product of learning within



a particular culture." (Faust, 1968a, p. 282) The child is in need of guidance as he progresses and in terms of preparing the ground for the next step, but not necessarily according to the textbook definition of developmental stages as such.

Schreiber (1964) suggests that both experience and research tell us that the causes of learning and nonlearning are multiple. Every school unit, each teacher, each curriculum worker needs to revise "the curriculum," to determine what effect teaching is having on children, whether he teaches children or helps others to teach them. It has been contended that if an individual can function efficiently on an intellectual level (as contrasted to pseudo-efficiently), he will also be maximally effective in other areas of human behavior (Danne and others, 1965).

An objective closely related to that of academic development is vocational development. That the individual must be treated as a "whole" person is suggested time and again in the literature. Dinkmeyer (1968, p. 308) quoted Super as follows:

We believe that vocational development is the development of self-concept, that the process of vocational adjustment is a process of implementing a self-concept, and the degree of satisfaction attained is proportionate to the degree through which the self-concept has been implemented.

Dinkmeyer added (1968, p. 310), "Thus, if the child understands the kind of person he is, he should be able to see his relationship to vocational opportunities."

Group guidance and the handling of vocational information has been very inadequate, according to the writers. The literature reflects that

teachers are occupationally naive and that textbooks are occupationally unrealistic (according to Lifton, 1959, as well as others). Groups have been conducted as a matter of assignment, and the leaders have had no training for such a role.

Goldman (1962) feels that group guidance can be effective, as well as economical, under a leader with prerequisite specialized training and supervised practice. Goldman suggests that past failures are due to the failure to recognize the importance of content and process.

Lyon's work (1966) led her to conclude that there is a possibility of a "vocational maturity," which is the result of early exposure, but she also suggested that vocational development is a part of the child's self-concept and identification in the adult world.

According to Dinkmeyer (1968, p. 309), it is obvious that attitudes toward vocation and education begin early in life and that young children have well developed attitudes regarding occupations. Vocation is an important aspect of life, the product of a long-time process. He has summarized in these words: "Productive vocational development is thus the result of the formulation, clarification, and acceptance of realistic self-concepts."

Frost (1967) has reported finding significant differences in occupational knowledge among the academic ability levels in an elementary school. Further analysis revealed significant differences between the first- and third-grade children and the first- and fifth-grade children. Frost suggests that there is a need for a study which will explore the

influence of systematic instruction on the development of attitudes and values.

Bugg (1969) reviewed seven major career choice theories in terms of their application to the elementary school-aged child and concluded that the two types of service available were essential in the elementary school if the nation's youth is to get maximum assistance in career choice. These services he defined as (1) counseling for self understanding and personal development, and (2) a well-formulated program of broad, general occupation information that serves as the foundation of later career decisions.

Arbuckle (1963) pointed out that no matter what the plan, the vital ingredient which must be present to assure a more satisfactory product is the people who worked it out. He maintains that the ability to get children involved in learning is more important than the occupational information presented. Talk about salary, duties, etc., in terms of different kinds of work, means little to children. The information should be used instead only as a vehicle and means of exploration. Thus the emphasis in vocational units should be on process and involvement, and its aim should be that of helping children work toward goals of critical thinking, respect and understanding.

Summarizing, in Arbuckle's words (1963, p. 339), ". . . since the life of a child differs only in degree from the life of an adult, the only way a child can 'prepare' for the years ahead is to live the present years . . . ." It appears to the writer that the vocational aspect of the

elementary school curriculum might be handled in much the same way as any other aspect and is just as essential as long as the needs of individual children are recognized to assure optimum learning on a personal basis.

It is becoming more and more apparent that the child is in need of assistance in his developmental process at different times for different reasons. Of no insignificant concern is the matter of learning to get along with others. According to Moustakas (1959), the self is often impaired because of rejection in important personal relationships.

Kaczkowski (1969, p. 256) puts it this strongly: "The child who fails to gain a sense of autonomy by the end of the primary level will tend to be rejected by those with whom he comes in contact." He further writes that, "the child's failure to internalize appropriate social roles impedes his development of adequate interpersonal relations." Also suggested by Kaczkowski (1969, p. 258) is that the counselor can be of assistance in this particular developmental process:

The child who learns to assimilate and to accomodate environmental pressures will have interpersonal relations that feature free verbal interchange and a sharing of inferences and conclusions. The child who is unable to share his ideas with others will have a restricted number of friends and will not participate in the classroom activities.

. . . In essence, the counseling relationship represents a sustained sequential situation in which the counselee is helped to acquite the symbol system of the culture. (Kaczkowski, 1969, p. 258)

Thus, Kaczkowski (1969) would have the counselor's work center on those children who have trouble in accommodating and assimilating

culturally determined ideas. Kaczkowski maintains that self-control increases as well as the quality of one's experiences once societal impositions are accepted. He points out that the child is asked to accept the imposition with the understanding that at some future date he will have the right to vary from the expected and in some instances reject it. Thus, "the counseling relationship explores the ideas that limitations not conformity, flexibility not rigidity, selectivity not impulsiveness, are the keystones to a meaningful educational experience." (Kaczkowski, 1969, p. 259) He states that modification is brought about by edit, and verbalization by the counselee will aid in exploring ideas, for, " . . . thinking, like loving and dying, is something each person must do for himself." (Kaczkowski, 1969, p. 258)

Piaget tells us that middle childhood is a crucial period in the development of internal moral control and sets of values. The child learns here that rules are necessary and develops the "morality of cooperation," in Piaget's terms (1929).

Perhaps this will be the child's opportune time for finding a balance and making peace between (1) what I am (my own self-image), (2) what I'd like to be (ideal), and (3) what I must not be (conscience), as suggested by Van Hoose and others (1967, p. 19), provided the climate for exploration is right.

Positive accomplishment of the developmental tasks, suggested by Tryon and Lilienthall and quoted by Dinkmeyer (1968, p. 263), appears to be a reasonable guide in determining whether interpersonal relation-

ships are fairly secure:

- a. achieving an appropriate dependent-independent pattern;
- b. achieving an appropriate giving-receiving pattern of affection, learning to accept self as worthwhile, learning to belong;
- c. relating to changing groups, establishing a peer group, and learning to belong and behave according to the shifting peer code.

That elementary school children do have problems in addition to those of an interpersonal nature is a well known fact to elementary school personnel. Rice (1963) studied the types of problems referred to a central guidance agency at different grade levels and found that intellectual disabilities and social maladjustment problems were most often referred at any grade level, and problems arising from emotional reactions tend to be constant at all grade levels. Intermediate pupils referred for intellectual problems were concerned more with perceptual difficulties complicated by underachieving, according to his report.

Smith and Eckerson's survey (1966b) found that 75 percent of the groups receiving most of the time of the child development consultant were seen for emotional-social problems. Question was raised as to whether these problems were actually the most numerous, those with which the teachers were most concerned, or whether the program was problem rather than developmentally oriented. However, 91 percent of the principals reported social-emotional problems as requiring most of the attention of the consultants.

Although probably not inclusive, it appears that Van Hoose has identified objectives also recognized by other writers as being

significant in the individual's total development. Perhaps in our educational endeavors we know better than we do. If so, the next step is logically to learn to apply more effectively those things we already know about working with children. It is also proposed by the writer that it is quite possible that some of the individuals now working with children were "shortchanged" in the educational process and would benefit from a personal evaluation in terms of these same objectives in order to increase self-understanding and thus contribute more significantly toward the development of others.

### Counselor functions

That the elementary school counselor differs from that of the secondary school has been clearly spelled out in the literature. Peters (1959) has identified 12 differences; Faust (1968a) summarized what he feels are the 15 significant differences, and Dinkmeyer (1968) has made an excellent review of the principles which take into consideration the unique aspects of working with children as compared to work done with adolescents or adults. Schreiber (1964, p. 196) explained:

Whereas high school counselors developed in order to help students with needs that were not seen or met by high school teachers, school psychologists and counselors in the elementary schools focus on helping teachers who saw pupil needs and wanted to do more about them.

The major difference might be termed the difference between development and adjustment counseling.

Points of view differ, however, with regard to the elementary

school counselor's major responsibility and area of concern. The following will illustrate the diversity of emphasis.

McDougall and Reitan (1963) found that counselor functions rated as being very important by most elementary school principals surveyed were all concerned with student counseling and parent consultation. Kaczkowski (1968), an experienced elementary school counselor, considers counseling pupils and consulting with teachers to be the areas of most concern. He suggests that teacher consultation is the most often mentioned but the least explicitly defined.

Mendelson (1968, p. 1) supports the counseling function as one of the primary duties of the elementary school counselor. He states that "although the bulk of his time is spent working with children, consulting with teachers, parents and administrators is also an integral part of the counselor's functions."

There must be someone of the school staff who can function as a counselor, who will provide direct services to pupils--with services to parents and teachers a natural by-product. Such a person is, logically, named a school counselor. (*Dimensions of Elementary School Guidance*, 1964, p. 17)

The counselor in the elementary program focuses more on teachers and the effects of their relationships, subject-matter content and instructional methods on the learning apparatus of the child, according to Dinkmeyer (n.d.), who further maintains that it is more economical to spend time with teachers and administrators who deal with and thus affect large numbers of students either directly or indirectly.

Faust appears to hold this view also. He notes that " . . . the



counselor, especially through counseling or consultation with teachers, aims at shaping an increasingly safe learning climate." (Faust, 1968a, p. 287) According to Ohlsen (1966, p. 94), the counselor's primary concern is the prevention of serious school adjustment problems, which is accomplished in part by helping teachers discover problems early and improve the learning atmosphere within the classroom.

Cupp and Fankhauser (1967, p. 5-8) reported on the Monroe pilot project in which they stated that the " . . . major part of counselor work was to fill in the gaps in the teacher's education." They reported that teachers lacked skills in handling guidance problems, but the counselor realized success only when recommendations were mutually developed, tested, and revised as the situation warranted such action. In this project the counselor also became a resource person for teachers, administrators and community agencies to supply concrete information regarding the pupil point of view.

In the Monroe report, Cupp and Fankhauser also noted that in the first year evaluation, administrators saw in order of importance the tasks performed by the counselors as (1) working with homes, (2) working with teachers, and (3) individual pupil contact. Their evaluation of the counselor's skill was, in order of greatest to least, (1) handling behavior problems, (2) working with teachers, and (3) working with homes. Administrators thought counselors should be more competent in making test interpretation more "classroom" meaningful, more competent as a consultant in curriculum planning and as an exponent in learning

theory.

On the other hand, teachers' evaluations revealed that they ranked services, in order of importance, as (1) diagnosis of learning difficulties, (2) aid with learning problems of individual students, (3) individual counseling, and (4) administration of group and individual tests. They felt counselors were effective in (1) handling learning problems, (2) problems dealing with classroom behavior, (3) problems of social interaction, and (4) playground problems (there was a lack of time available to counselors to be spent in this area).

McKellar's study (1963) of elementary school counselors indicated that they were most frequently occupied with holding individual teacher conferences to improve teacher understanding of pupil needs and characteristics, in helping teachers identify pupils who needed special help, helping all teachers to accept and understand children, interpreting pupil data and test results to individual groups of teachers, and working with individual teachers on questions relating to student management and behavior change.

The Association for Counselor Education and Supervision and the American School Counselor's Association formed a joint committee to study the elementary school counselor's role. They advocated, and most writers agree, that the elementary school counselor functions are counseling, consulting, and coordinating. Warner (1968) reported that all 31 counselors in Ohio's pilot projects functioned in a counseling, consulting, coordinating role.

There is, however, as was previously pointed out, strong disagreement as to where the major emphasis should be placed. It seems fairly certain that identity can be found in group interactions, activities, and sentiments as opposed to individual commitments, as pointed out by Brown (1968). Ohlsen (1966, p. 93) makes reference to several writers who believe as he does, after seeing what elementary school counselors can do for pupils, parents and teachers, that the elementary school counselor " . . . fulfills functions that we cannot expect teachers to fulfill."

Too, it has been pointed out that prevalent in school counseling and fostered by the guidance services concept is the idea that the uniqueness of the counselor lies in the number and variety of his functions (Patterson, 1969). Blackham (Usitalo, 1967, p. 128), in evaluating the pilot project at Olympia, stated:

As a general rule, the extent to which counselors were able to perform effectively in a variety of roles was based on the readiness of the school and the school community to accept the services and use them.

Those who reported the Baton Rouge (Louisiana State Department of Education, 1968) pilot project experience found that " . . . effective guidance services are contingent upon an understanding, willing and ready staff."

In summary, Aubrey (1968) reports that it is obvious that elementary counselors are called upon to fit multi-role expectations but he feels that what is called for at this point is not a single all-inclusive

role. Rather flexibility and experimentation should distinguish the elementary counselor until such time as adequate evidence establishes one role above all others. It is the opinion of Aubrey that counselors themselves will need to investigate to see which functions they can best fulfill in a guidance capacity.

McGehearty (1968, p. 259), reporting on a research project, points out two major difficulties facing school counselors. First, " . . . overwhelming demands of paper work which needs doing by someone," and second, " . . . they become so immersed in the needs of a few individuals that they fail to view the overall problems and needs of the entire studentbody."

There are certain other duties writers have mentioned by way of caution as having fallen heir on occasion to the secondary school counselor that they feel should never be assigned to the counselor in an elementary school. In the words of Hansen and Stevic (1969, p. 49), " . . . the 'counselor' may perform various clerical, administrative or accounting tasks--guidance and counseling are inappropriate terms for the work being done."

Often the counselor becomes the person who must deal with disciplinary problems. Roeber, Walz and Smith (1969, p. 92-93) suggest that students who tend to be recipients of disciplinary action can be helped if the counselor assumes a part of the rehabilitation responsibility but never should he have the responsibility of invoking penalties. "He persistently protects his counseling function from actions that

would distort a student's image of his proper role." (Roeber, Walz and Smith, 1969, p. 92-93)

Van Hoose (1968, p. 167-168) states, " . . . the school counselor is neither a caseworker nor a tester," as does Faust (1968a, p. 186) who further states that test interpretation is done only as it becomes "useful" in counseling. Patterson believes that different specialists are desirable but cautions that they should not result in " . . . breaking the whole child into pieces." (Patterson, 1969, p. 985) The counselor in trying to do many things would neglect his main purpose for being in the school, according to Patterson.

That the counselor responsibilities should be limited to his specific preparation is recognized by Myric (n.d., p. 11), who has written that the

. . . counselor is not a jack-of-all trades. . . . He is a specialist. His specialty is the helping relationship. His major responsibility is to know about human behavior and interpersonal relationships and how these are related to the child's becoming a more effective helper.

Most writers see the emerging elementary school counselor as having solely as his goal the understanding of each child as an individual and a learner as a means to the ultimate goal of helping the pupil understand himself in order to set personal goals and make plans and decisions necessary in the total developmental process.

As has been illustrated, major emphasis is given the counseling and consulting roles of the counselor. A review will follow regarding these. The role of counselor as coordinator has been only briefly

mentioned by several writers. The Association for Counselor Education and Supervision-American School Counselor's Association Joint Committee defined coordination as

. . . the method used to bring into focus the school's total effort in the child's behalf, eliminating duplication of effort and insuring follow-through on decisions made and policies established. (Quoted in Dinkmeyer, 1968, p. 104)

Kornick and Hansen (1967) concluded in their pilot report that consultation and coordination between teachers and the guidance assistant in regard to children involved in either individual or group counseling was found to be an essential aspect of the team approach and that coordination of the standardized group testing program, psychological services, speech and hearing therapy services, and the school health program proved to be essential in making these services a meaningful part of the total guidance program.

Brown (1968) reports, however, that the general conclusion drawn from the study she reports is that suggestions made by outside sources of elementary school guidance had little impact on the functions being performed by the elementary school guidance counselor.

Faust (1968a, p. 31) suggests that coordination is " . . . a role unique to each school or district rather than a set role for all or most counselors." Writers consistently emphasize the need for a close working relationship with other members of the school staff. Apparently it is well that no coordination responsibility be assigned nor assumed until communication between the members of the staff

indicates the most feasible means of sharing information and ideas, of combining knowledge into new patterns, and of making mutually agreed upon decisions about the next step to be taken.

Counseling. Patterson (1969, p. 979) states very simply, "Everyone says that counseling is the core of guidance, but few act as if it is." This statement reflects the feeling of some experts in the field who believe the counselor belongs in the school for the major purpose of counseling with individual students.

Farwell, quoted by Peters and Farwell, (1967, p. 488) has stated:

Counseling is the primary function of the school counselor. In this function of counseling, the school counselor works individually with each pupil trying to help the counselee gain a meaningful perspective of his strengths and weaknesses, a clear vision of his opportunity, and a knowledge of the existing or possible interferences in his maturing and adjusting throughout life. There are enough "significant others" in each person's life committed to telling.

Peters and Farwell (1967) say the counselor, "with a commitment," is in the key position for implementing the school guidance program, but they also emphasize the importance of other staff members. Faust (1968a) sees the counselor as "counselor" rather than as an elementary school consultant, although he has described in detail his work as a consultant.

Barclay (1967, p. 24) reports results that suggest that

. . . the elementary counselor should function as an integral part of the elementary curriculum rather than a visiting dignitary who mysteriously appears and summons children to meet with him. . . . The inferences become clear to all the students in the class and a maladaptive response can easily generalize both to the student so singled out and to the elementary counselor.

Research indicates that children need to be informed and made acquainted with the counselor and the services he offers them (Cupp and Fankhauser, 1967).

"Moreover, the recruitment of males for this type of work should be strongly emphasized," according to Barclay (1967, p. 24). This has also been suggested by Schreiber (1964). This suggestion is based on the fact that teaching staffs at the elementary level are predominantly female; there is often the negative authority role of the principal and the absence of appropriate male modeling for many segments of our culture.

As have others, Kaczkowski (1968, p. 86) cautions that strategies toward typical guidance goals as "commonly executed . . . lead to a considerable amount of social engineering." However, Faust (1968a, p. 288) is not concerned with this point in that

the counselor who has a personal approach to learning does not hesitate to accept his responsibility for manipulating and controlling child and teacher responses or, in fact, as much of the learning climate as possible.

He further points out that in this case

manipulation and control mean that the counselor behaves with teachers and children in ways that will "free them to learn." That is (a) they will respond with relatively little anxiety, fear and guilt; (b) they will have full access to unobstructed use of their central nervous systems; and (c) they will be open to the full range of their environment, to creative, unique problem-solving efforts, rather than to defensive responses.



Criticism of elementary school counseling has focused on several areas, some of which have been legitimate concerns in view of both nonexistent research and research which has failed to provide adequate guidelines for implementation. The basic question has been: Can it be done? One might guess that counseling young children would be a questionable endeavor for it has been suggested that children do not have the maturity necessary for self analysis and understanding (Smith and Eckerson, 1963); that they lack adequate communication skills; that on the basis of comparisons of developmental factors with those of secondary school students, " . . . the elementary child is not ready for a formal counseling program. . . ." (Eubanks, n.d.), and therefore it may seem not likely that children would benefit from this particular service.

If these suppositions were true, it may legitimately be asked how child guidance clinics continue to function.

In 1965 Van Hoose analyzed 30 transcripts of counseling interviews with children in grades one through six. He concluded that these children were able to assume responsibility for counseling and to verbalize their feelings to the degree necessary for counseling through the use of interview techniques. Van Hoose found, however, that the child does not have, generally, all the skills and understanding necessary to work on a problem or to develop and follow through on a plan of action. The data suggested that the elementary school counselor must consider the relative immaturity of the child when counseling with him. This finding

suggests that the counselor may need to assume more responsibility for direct assistance to the counselee than does the counselor of adolescents or adults.

Pruett and Whiteman (1967) noted in their pilot project report that just as the curriculum is geared to the level of younger children so must be counseling sessions. In a recent study (Van Hoose, 1965) it was found that elementary school counselors in actual interviews with children do tend to assist the child in selecting and identifying the topic or problem to be worked through. According to reports by Van Hoose (1968), it appears that the counselor helps to pinpoint the real concern inasmuch as the child does lack the verbal facility necessary for describing what really bothers him. It is proposed that perhaps the school ought to assume more responsibility for teaching adequate communication skills for children can and do verbalize.

However, Nelson (1966), who has done work in play media, feels it is just as inappropriate to expect a young child to talk through his feelings as it is to expect an adult to use a sand box or puppet for self-expression. Faust (1968a, p. 154-155) maintains that the play process is a facility

. . . well developed and superior, certainly much more so than his speech. . . . Play is merely a vehicle for processes . . . . It is the relationship between the child and counselor, with play as a major vehicle for that relationship, which makes it possible for the child to effect changes within himself.

Hansen and Stevic (1969) say that the inability to counsel children reflects inadequacy on the part of the adult--that it is the

responsibility of the counselor to discover ways of effectively working with the younger child. The work of Van Hoose (1968) has led to the development of constructs to serve as guideposts in elementary counseling for the establishment of meaningful contact with counselees and provide some measure of the counselee's functioning. Kaczkowski (1967) has found that typical normal children require only a few sessions in order to identify and remove blocks to learning, and Yarrow (1960) suggests that counseling interviews can be a technique for assessing the child's perceptions of significant people in his environment.

Ohlsen (1966) refers to an Illinois Demonstration Center where staff members have found that children will seek help on their own, and Van Hoose (1968) refers to the work of Linder which indicated that students will seek a counselor's help at this level for personal and emotional problems. Dr. Anna Meeks (Usitalo, 1967, p. 134), in her evaluation of the Olympia program, stated that

the children who worked with a counselor are well aware that counseling helps you to "understand yourself" and to "understand other people". . . . how insightful they were in recognizing the relationship of feeling about self and academic achievement.

Hawkins (1966) investigated the topics that elementary school children discuss in interviews with counselors. Topics were related to home, school and self. Both upper and lower elementary grade children were able to verbalize in interviews. Discussions involved concerns and problems as well as nonproblem-centered talk.

Van Hoose (1968, p. 90-91) summarized the data of this study which seems to suggest:

1. There are certain dependency factors which restrict the child from changing many things in his environment. The child's choices are, therefore, limited when compared with the adult's opportunity to manipulate his environment.
2. There is a need for greater sensitivity in working with non-verbal cues. The child is not as verbal as the adult, and the counselor must try to determine the deeper meanings of his words and expressions.
3. The child is not sufficiently mature for major problem solving. Cognitive factors in counseling are different than with the more mature individual and the counselor must always consider the child's reasoning capacity.
4. The elementary school is really involved in a re-educative process when working with children. He is working toward the development of self-understanding, the modification of behavior and the development of increased social interest and awareness.
5. Both cognitively and emotionally, the elementary school pupil's perception of time is not. The counselor is thus required to deal with immediate matters and concerns in contrast to the counselor of adolescents who helps his clients focus upon the future.

It appears that counseling with children can be done and will be effective to the extent of the counselor's professional competency and ability to communicate with the child. A variety of counseling techniques with some modifications and variations may be required. Dinkmeyer (1966) has listed the fundamentals of child counseling based on a developmental point of view taking into consideration the unique aspects of working with children.

Although recognizing that not all teachers require counseling, nor will all profit from it, Faust (1968a) places teacher counseling as a slowly developing "first-order requisite" in terms of counselor emphasis. He points out that counselor work with teachers has been, with few

exceptions, described on the consultation level. Consultation is intellectually focused, while counseling deals more with affect--the variable that is likely to bring about more involvement and thus is more likely to result in change or learning. Faust (1968a, p. 117) feels that included in the broad objectives in the teacher counseling process are:

(1) increasing the teacher's knowledge of human behavior dynamics in the learning process and (2) increasing the teacher's facility for translating such knowledge and their own personalities into practice with children.

Faust (1968a, p. 118) has pointed out further that " . . . working with one teacher can effectively free thirty children to learn." In other words, "One hour of work with an individual teacher can be worth thirty hours of child-counseling time," but, he goes on to say, counseling with groups of teachers can be more economically rewarding. He points out that there have been objections raised to teacher group counseling but that it has been found that " . . . working with groups of people can result in marked changes in the members of that group--changes that are basically no different from those occurring in the one-to-one relationship." References Faust lists include the works of Shaw, Ohlsen, and Faust.

Research by Harrison and referred to by Faust (1968a) indicates that there is less resistance and more motivation on the part of teachers to enter group counseling than might be expected.

Faust (1968a, p. 119) suggests that "group counseling may assist teachers to become increasingly aware of what other people are like,

what their needs are, and how they set out to satisfy them," and thus he places group counseling with teachers " . . . at the top of the counseling heirarchy." (Faust, 1968a, p. 119) Next in importance, Faust feels, is counseling with individual teachers, next counseling with groups of children, and finally counseling with children on an individual basis. Significant in his discussion, the writer feels, is the point that problems to be worked on must be closely related to teacher-child effectiveness in the learning process. The counselor should be cautious with regard to a personal-type counseling relationship with teachers and co-workers. And above all else, Faust maintains, in in-service and other work with teachers the counselor relationship must be direct and honest.

Thus the literature emphasizes that counselors will work with teachers through the counseling function to increase services indirectly to children. However, counseling of children remains a major topic.

The Association for Counselor Education and Supervision and American School Counselor's Association Joint Committee states that the counselor can contribute his knowledge and skill through the process of counseling, both on an individual and a group basis, as reported by Dinkmeyer (1968, p. 103).

It is the premise of this statement that counseling both individually and in small group situations can provide assistance to children in the normal process of growing up as they seek to understand themselves, meet the developmental tasks of childhood, learn effectively, and develop realistic self-concepts. Emphasis is on the child as a learner in the school situation.

Kaczkowski (1969, p. 251) maintains that the counseling situation should focus on how the student feels and thinks about life matters and how this frame of reference may impede him from having a meaningful educational experience.

Kornick and Hansen (1967) concluded that as a review of the study data and on the basis of teacher evaluation, individual counseling with students was of value in assisting students toward achieving a better school adjustment. It was recommended that this function be continued within the school system with the teacher being made responsible for making the initial identification and referral, the "guidance assistant" to be responsible to make the final selection and arrange scheduling. Group counseling with groups of four to eight students with similar problems or concerns was found to be of value.

The Association for Counselor Education and Supervision and American School Counselor's Association Joint Committee (ACES-ASCA Joint Committee) termed group counseling " . . . a major learning experience in human relations . . ." and suggests that it is " . . . particularly helpful in personal and social growth," as quoted in Dinkmeyer (1968, p. 103). Although what goes on in the relationship is of major importance, according to the experts, Faust (1968a, p. 37) points out that " . . . much of what is learned in the life history of every individual is learned in some sort of group environment . . ." and thus it is not " . . . unnatural . . . to expect group work to be just as effective as one-to-one relationship learning."

Dreikurs and Sonstegard (1967, p. 287) have written that

. . . so children and parents in groups learn something about themselves, but more about people. With the understanding of human nature, they begin to understand themselves. Group counseling is in reality a learning process. Research indicates that the group enhances learning and that counseling, as a learning process, is enhanced by the group.

Hansen and Stevic (1969, p. 159) point out that groups play an important part in most elementary school activities and thus are a natural vehicle for achieving some elementary guidance goals, but they " . . . are valuable only to the extent that group members receive unique assistance exclusive of other situations." They suggest that group purposes may be for orientation, various specialized learning experiences, pre-individual counseling or counseling endeavors with pupils of similar concerns. These authors emphasize the view that groups are a supplement to and complement the individual focus. It is evident that there must be clearly defined and meaningful goals.

Boy, Isaksen and Pine (1963, p. 302) feel that "the counselor with adequate background in personality theory can use multiple counseling to make the process of working with individuals more effective."

The final report of the pilot project in elementary school guidance at Kent State University (Heisey and Getson, 1967) suggests that group counseling produced significant generalized results in many areas rather than just the area identified as needing change--the value of counseling diffuses into many areas.

Dreikurs and Sonstegard (1967, p. 287) suggest that insight could



become an end product in group counseling, but

. . . is not an end in itself--it is merely a means to an end. It is not often a basis for behavioral change, but always a step in that direction. The end product is re-orientation and redirections.

The changes, they say, become evident in relationships with others and in more realistic self-concepts.

Dinkmeyer (n. d., p. 8) reports on literature related to group counseling in the elementary school which he feels seems to show real promise in terms of affecting changes in the behavior of elementary school children.

Collar (1969) reported on an experimental counseling service in which an attempt was made to coordinate efforts between elementary and secondary school districts. She pointed out that the experimenters lacked a frame of reference from which to compare the before-and-after effect of counseling with the student, but on the basis of test interpretation, group work, and self referral features, the following comments from junior high school students were used for the purpose of ascertaining the effectiveness of the program and in planning for expansion:

Counseling is . . . relief. We can talk about anything to someone who listens. Listening is the important thing. . . . a place where you can make a friend. . . . helping you solve problems yourself without letting someone else solve them for you. . . . a mental HELP center! Individual counseling . . . helped me to see how my problems were to be approached and solved, not run away from. I discovered that many people have problems which I could have helped just being myself. . . . helped me have a better understanding of my problems and why I have them. . . . helped me to examine my fears and therefore gain more courage and self-confidence. I have also gained more friends and won their respect. In group counseling . . . I

learned that by helping others I learned to help myself. I gained self-confidence knowing that other people have the same problems and have handled them. (Collar, 1969, p. 302)

It appears to the writer that in evaluating any service much can be gained in considering the opinion of the recipient; it is impossible to rely solely on the viewpoint of those with a service to offer and meet the needs. Experience in school counseling, and teaching as well, emphasizes for the writer the need, as do the above comments, for someone with time and special training to be available to assist as needed in this complex and sometimes overwhelming process of "growing up."

Consulting. According to Dinkmeyer, (1968, p. 106), "consulting is a process by which teachers, parents, principals and other significant adults in the life of a child communicate about him." Rather than placing an emphasis on the principle of affect, consultation focuses on intellectual factors and makes it possible to consider available data and make decisions cooperatively with regard to future procedures.

Hansen and Stevic (1969, p. 102) believe that

consultation is based on the concept that the child's behavior is determined by reinforcement and, therefore, that a change in his social environment, i. e., people who are reinforcing his behavior, leads to change in the child's behavior.

This, they say, eliminates the necessity of verbal explanations or other one-to-one experiences. Thus, "the counselor goes beyond individual counseling by trying to improve the child's interaction with his significant others."

However, Van Hoose (1968, p. 170) points out that if " . . . in the school situation consultation has the primary objective of changing the adult-child relationship through developing more understanding of the child . . . ." child counseling should precede consultation with adults since it may be difficult to consult without information gained through counseling. He maintains that there must be adequate understanding of an individual child and counseling children should receive the major emphasis with consultation done for the purpose of enhancing the work done with individuals and groups of children. He further maintains that " . . . a counselor's direct personal involvement with children produces benefits that cannot be realized by indirect assistance through consultation."

Faust (1968a) has indicated that the primary differences between counseling and consultation are (a) in focus--which is on a unit external to the consultee, and (b) the kind of relationship established, which is different inasmuch as the consultee does not risk personal self exposure when the focus is on a third person (external unit).

There are two main activities in the consultive work of the counselor, according to Kaczkowski (1967, p. 128):

- (a) Acting as a mediator between the child and his concerns and significant others. At certain times a child can only modify his behavior if significant persons in his life (i.e., teacher and parents) change their behavior toward him. (b) Helping the principal and the teachers to examine the impact and consequences of instructional procedures on the children. The counselor helps the staff to evaluate the affective aspects of the instructional process.

Faust (1968a, p. 59) believes that the counselor acts as consultant to individual children at times and states that " . . . individual child consultation is almost totally crisis-oriented." He points out that it is more informational and supportive and focuses " . . . on some narrow, relatively isolated segment of the child's total dynamics."

The consultant role has been thought of as one in which " . . . an expert dispenses information." (Faust, 1968a, p. 32) While this is an oversimplification, there is a basic truth in that the counselor has a depth and breadth of training in an area in which he can act as "expert." However, the specialist cannot provide ready answers. His training, rather, will better enable him to work with others in understanding and resolving the problems that interfere with children's learning. In the project report by Cupp and Fankhauser (1967) it was noted that the counselor in practice became a resource person for teachers, administrators and community agencies to supply concrete information regarding the pupil point of view.

Faust (1968a) would make consultation a service available to individual and groups of teachers, individual and groups of children, in curriculum development, with administrators, parents, school personnel specialists and with community agencies.

The counselor as consultant should be, then, an added service within the school which results in improved guidance by those working with children, rather than a decrease in guidance responsibility to be supposedly taken over by the counselor.

There have been criticisms of the counselor's doing consultant work. Patterson (1969, p. 980) has written that the consultant role

. . . seems to be fostered by counselors or counselor educators and specialists whose training and experience has all been at the secondary school level, who apparently don't know anything about children and are even afraid to be alone with a child or small groups of children outside the security of a classroom setting.

He maintains, however, that his main objection to the consultation function is that the counselor " . . . becomes uninvolved in helping or working with children directly, and leaves the problem-solving to others." The counselor's viewpoint then becomes external and the counselor becomes an expert on children, rather than on a particular child. It appears to Patterson that those not closely involved in schools are attempting to de-emphasize counseling and replace it with consulting and coordinating functions.

It appears to the writer that if a counselor were limited solely to counseling individuals and groups of students, a ratio of 1:600 would prove to be very unrealistic if the school fostered a developmental approach which would provide services to all children. Consultation more economically meets the problems of increased demands for services. It is believed by many that the most extensive improvement of guidance services can be made by increasing the effectiveness of the teacher (Faust, 1968a). Although counseling and coordination of services are important, consultation appears to be the most significant contribution a counselor can make to children, provided, of course, the focus

of consultation remains on the child and his environment. The role of consultant is very much in need of further exploration and development.

"One of the critical needs at the elementary school level is to integrate the guidance function into the educative process and curriculum," according to Dinkmeyer (1968, p. 108). In fact, Cupp and Fankhauser (1967) reported that the first major hurdle encountered in the Monroe project was the articulation of the counselor and his contribution into the on-going stream of events where the services had not before been present.

Consultation services can result in increased guidance competencies by teachers who are of necessity so concerned with new developments in curriculum and instruction there is little time available for child study. The consultant can aid the teacher in examining the impact of the instructional process on the child. Lee (1963, p. 122) expresses it in these words:

The consultant should serve as an extra pair of eyes for the teacher to help him see children in situations differently than he would otherwise, an extra pair of hands to help gather more data concerning children, an extra brain to look at this data somewhat differently than the teacher might look at it, and as an extra mouth to occasionally help teachers interpret children to parents; certainly a pair of ears would be extremely helpful to listen to the teacher's side of the story.

The consultant can further help to insure that the school has an adequate developmental program geared to individual students by helping the staff to analyze its philosophy, policy and procedures in terms

of his background and training. "Consultation may extend the counselor's influence by increasing the capability of the teacher to perform his guidance role," is the thinking of Stripling and Lane (1966, p. 30). They point out that the goal is not to make the teacher into a counselor but to help him increase insight and skills integral in the teaching response.

Roeber, Walz and Smith (1969), Hansen and Stevic (1969), Dinkmeyer (1968), and Van Hoose (1968) are some of the writers who have outlined guidelines and methods of consultation conferences. It has been reported that parent-teacher-counselor conferences are valuable in helping the parents, teachers and counselor obtain a better understanding of the student. It was further pointed out that these conferences should not replace the regular Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) conferences, but should be continued in addition (Kornick and Hansen, 1967).

Some significant points have been made with regard to the nature of counselor-teacher consultation conferences. For example, it has been pointed out that consultations are team efforts, recognizing that more can be accomplished by cooperative efforts than singly by a teacher, a counselor, or a parent. These conferences

. . . are not motivated by one individual attempting to dominate or influence another but by a sharing relationship, one involving mutual concern for a child's welfare and one in which planning environmental experimentation can enhance a child's development. (Roeber, Walz and Smith, 1969, p. 153-154)

Those who request help are not taught by the consultant but are

simply aided in professional growth through the counselor's provision of an atmosphere in which a "psychic stalemate" may be removed and the staff member's sense of worth reinforced, according to Kaczkowski (1967). Roeber, Walz and Smith (1969, p. 136) point out that "consulting relationships provide a learning experience for all participants."

With regard to in-service course work in consultation efforts, Faust (Dinkmeyer, 1967, p. 134) has cautioned that

Only when teachers can become personally involved with the course work can the consultant hope to see his efforts rewarded by teachers becoming excited about the in-service program, about education as a profession, and most importantly, about the welfare of children in the learning climates that the teacher can ultimately design.

The teacher is in a favorable position to provide guidance; the child is at a formative age and the teacher has close daily contact. Thus, according to Pruett and Whiteman (1967), the counselor will "supplement" the teacher role by offering special services. The team approach is understood as inseparable to the elementary guidance program according to the results of this pilot project.

Myrick (n. d.) reports that there is evidence to suggest that teachers are not being trained to implement a developmental approach. As was referred to earlier, Cupp and Fankhauser (1967, p. 5) found that a " . . . major part of counselor work was to fill in the gaps in the teacher's education."

Flanders (1959) studied teachers across the nation and estimated that less than one-half of one percent of the responses made by teachers



in the classroom are directed to a child's feelings--either negative or positive. The developmental approach will not take place unless children's ideas and feelings are responded to by teachers. Yet, in another study by Flanders (1963), research shows that both "good and "bad" teachers can pick out the important variables of good teaching when given a list from which to choose. He stated that in his opinion it is obvious that teachers need help in translating learning psychology and the principles of a helping relationship into practice. In other words, they need help in implementing the developmental approach.

With regard to individual differences and classroom environment, Waetjen (1965b, p. 1) summarized research findings and pointed out that

. . . counselors, therefore, can help teachers (1) use individual differences constructively, both in tests and in the classroom experiences; (2) become better diagnosticians in collecting data on intellectual and nonintellectual factors and in keeping useful records; and (3) deal effectively with children experiencing classroom difficulties.

Schreiber (1964) noted that teachers need help in understanding and respecting culture patterns so as to know what modifications can be reasonably expected in these patterns and their implications for school procedures, in being able to reach individual parents, in writing meaningful reports, in improving their skills and interpreting the school and needs of children to parents.

Morse (1969, p. 33) points out that conflict between specialists and classroom teachers used to be commonplace, but that teachers have now discovered a new way to use the help of a specialist--

replacing long discourses on "how Johnny got that way" with discussions of what can be done now, in the classroom. The Baton Rouge (Louisiana State, 1968, p. 2) project report indicated that in-service programs were useful to the teachers and that one of the most valuable training aids was the child-study approach. They saw the purpose of

adding this new specialist to the faculty . . . not to take away the guidance responsibility of the teacher, but to provide a trained person who will help make the teacher's work more effective.

The Monroe project (Cupp and Fankhauser, 1967) ran January through June and September through December. The writers indicate that they found new-to-school teachers almost universally utilized the services of the counselor to a larger extent than did older teachers. However, all classroom teachers felt the program was beneficial according to the survey of their opinions regarding the effect of the counselor on their work in the school. Axelberd (1967) compared attitudes of teachers in pilot schools with two years of guidance activity with those in schools where no services were available. He maintains that the study offered encouragement toward soliciting support of teachers.

It was pointed out by Kaczkowski (1967) that teachers and principals who request help of the counselor are those who feel they need help. There may be staff members who meet suggestions with hostility--fortunately there are only a few who are not secure enough to utilize the consulting services of the counselor.

Other deterrents to successful consultation have been pointed out

by other writers. Faust (1968, p. 45) has included inaccurate perceptions of consultation as a means of obtaining "prescriptions" where a necessary time investment is resisted and the "non-professional school setting" where morale is low and " . . . teachers run for their cars at the precise hour of 4:00 p.m. . . ." Cupp and Fankhauser (1967, p. 10) report the most resistance was found in buildings where the principal or head teachers were somewhat hesitant. This was, they feel, augmented by the unsureness of counselors themselves; but where strong support was given by administrators, the effect of "exploitation by older, more aggressive, teachers was minimized." In the absence of administrative planning, guidance activities were not performed and physical conditions were not adequate, according to Brown (1968).

A pilot project reported by Kornick and Hansen (1967) found guidance in-service training to be of value in promoting the use of guidance resources and techniques and recommended expansion and improvement for the following year. Monroe District's cooperative project (Cupp and Fankhauser, 1967) included experience which indicated that in-service contacts for teachers were facilitated through pre-school workshops, institute days, staff bulletins, and released time for professional meetings.

There have been writers who express the view that consultation is an important service to parents as well as to teachers, although little has been reported on work with parents. In Schreiber's dropout report (1964, p. 132-134) he states that the elementary schools now contribute

heavily to the dropout problem and " . . . they can, and should, use a process of interaction between home and school for raising the level of school achievement," and gives some suggestions as to how this might be accomplished (Schreiber, 1964, p. 132-134).

Hansen and Stevic (1969, p. 105) have expressed the view

Parents are the greatest agent of change in the child's environment. However, they may feel and be inadequate in implementing behavior change. Because parents are in the best position of effecting necessary changes in the child's behavior, they could use preventive techniques if they had a capable and reliable resource to assist them.

Consultation should adhere to many principles of the counseling relationship, Kaczkowski (1967) believes. For example, he suggests that parents may be in need of "teaching" in order to develop an understanding of their child's behavior. Hansen and Stevic (1969, p. 104) also hold this view, stating, "sometimes it is necessary for counselors to re-educate parents in recognizing and accepting the responsibilities of helping their child." Luckey (1968, p. 347) feels the " . . . elementary school counselor is destined to become the family counselor and the parent educator." In any event, she predicts that the counselor will make possible the alliance between school and family both have felt the need for. Both Luckey (1968) and Sonstegard (1964) point out the basic necessity of being prepared for parental contacts--conference or group with legitimate goals and a pattern for the interview due to the unique nature of work with parents. For the parent comes not to ask for help for himself but for someone else and

seeks to learn not the "why" of the child's behavior but rather "what can be done about it " (Sonstegard, 1964).

Roeber, Walz and Smith (1969, p. 154) would hope that the teacher could serve as a liaison with parents and that the counselor would help the " . . . teachers develop skills, understandings and attitudes that improve their consultative work with parents. "

Writers propose that

. . . a counselor spend a significant proportion of his time consulting with parents about the normal development of their children. Instead of problem-oriented consultations with a few parents, a counselor should engage in periodic conferences with all parents. (Roeber, Walz and Smith, 1969, p. 145)

Through such efforts both quality and quantity of educational experiences for children may be expanded and improved.

Two parent-teacher education centers have been termed a " . . . very helpful technique for stimulating change in the disturbing child's behavior in the home and in the classroom. (Allred, 1968, p. 11) Allred reports that these centers have been successful as well as economical as programs where professionals, parents, and teachers can gain educationally in addition to coordinating their efforts. Dinkmeyer (1968, p. 345) noted that community centers of this nature across the nation " . . . attempt to formulate a philosophy of human relationships within the family. "

Duncan (1968) met with parents of sixth grade students and initiated an annual meeting of a group of parents which met for the purpose of

an interchange of information for three years following. This group, as compared to an earlier group, indicated an encouraging trend toward increased parent-child communication and a positive effect on school adjustment.

It is evident that more time for planned study of work with parents must be made available to determine what might be done for children in this area. Although it appears to offer possibilities as a helpful technique in helping children, empirical data of some sort are needed to justify the time that could be spent in this one area.

Holden (1967), in a study of one state's guidance program, compared the elementary guidance concepts of principals to those held by professionals, i. e., experts in the guidance field. Holden found that one-half agreed to some extent, one-fourth agreed strongly, and the remaining one-fourth agreed barely or not at all. Principals who agreed most reported better practices in elementary guidance organization than did those who agreed least.

With regard to principal-counselor consultations, Watson (1969, p. 239) reported on group work. An area which seemed to have the most meaning in the area of interpersonal relations was "knowing that there are others with whom I can talk." He stated this " . . . must be a cornerstone of elementary guidance." Even principals need someone with whom they can talk. "This person must have the patience and training for listening and the knowledge necessary to establish a helping relationship. Principals who have been in group work demand this."

Watson reports that in such consultations, principals judged themselves to be more confident and insightful following a group experience. It is expected that these men will also be less inhibited and more demanding than a typical principal. "Elementary counselors should find fertile ground for innovative progress under the direction of men like these." (Watson, 1969, p. 240)

Principal-counselor consultation results in the solution of problems. Watson (1969) maintains that it will enable adults to talk with each other and with children in such a way that the greatest possible learning efficiency in the classroom is facilitated. This author suggests that a counselor begin teacher or parent groups (whichever is needed more) as early in the year as possible with the principal in a participating role. Of utmost importance is the planning beforehand with the principal.

Waetjen (1956a, p. 62) reported on the University of Texas Center five-year study which is training Child Behavior Consultants to help teachers learn new and, presumably, better ways of dealing with learning and/or emotional problems. He writes,

The emphasis of the research effort will be to demonstrate and evaluate the efficacy of sustained consultation services to teachers as a means of increasing teacher's positive (preventative) impact on children's mental health.

Waetjen (1965a) also points out that the University of California is experimenting on both the elementary and secondary levels with groups-- they work with parents and teachers using the guidance personnel service

as resource persons to deal with problems which interfere with learning.

In summary, Roeber, Walz and Smith (1969, p. 145) have recognized the vast demand consulting services might have on a counselor's time. They say:

It is apparent that a counselor cannot possibly satisfy all who seek his services as a consultant. The counselor is working with perceptions of other individuals toward themselves and children. . . . a counselor is concerned with providing an atmosphere in which others may freely express their perceptions, knowing that they will become increasingly more accepting and understanding of each other. Furthermore, they will tend to communicate more freely with each other and resolve differences that block optimum use of individual capacities and environment. A counselor, therefore, develops a personal theory and philosophy regarding consultations; and pleasing conference participants is not his primary objective. When adult expectations are clearly unrealistic, a counselor is obligated to discuss his consulting role with those who seek his services.

### Professional preparation

It is becoming apparent from the literature that the elementary school counselor must be well prepared in breadth as well as depth. His preparation will include at least two years on the graduate level. Few universities have had programs specifically geared to a program on the elementary school level.

Hill (1968, p. 7-8) lists, without recommendations, the emphases found in graduate programs today.

1. A strong emphasis upon the study of children and a thorough understanding of the processes of child development. This is a major emphasis in all preparation programs.
2. Thorough preparation in the theory and in the practice of counseling, both individual and group, both with children and with adults.
3. Thorough preparation and experience in the field of measurement and evaluation.



4. Thorough preparation in the psychology of learning, of personality, and of mental hygiene. 5. Study of the exceptional children of various types, their needs, their identification and their education. 6. A sound and growing understanding of the elementary school, its instructional programs, its current needs, its future development. 7. A sound training in applied research methods, the interpretation of research, and the use of research in seeking to improve school programs.

The ACES-ASCA Joint Committee detailed the personal qualifications and professional preparation required for this position (Dinkmeyer, 1968). Brown (1968) found that counselors felt their professional preparation was not sufficient to meet the needs for knowledge and skills in the areas of organization and administration of guidance, techniques of group work, family dynamics and human relations.

Biasco (1969, p. 243) found, as an observer of elementary guidance programs in one state, that adequate preparation was questionable. He said that some counselors were functioning adequately, but some were very inadequate. They

. . . could not explain what they were doing, why they were doing it, or what they should be doing. They seemed to be lost in a sea of activity with no relationship between their activities and the objectives of guidance.

Patterson (1969, p. 985) states, "counselors must accept psychology as the basic science of the profession," while Faust writes,

we propose that the elementary school counselor cannot be considered professionally effective unless he is knowledgeable regarding the role of the CNS central nervous system in learning as it applies to the counseling process. (Faust, 1968a, p. 239)

Faust feels that preparation training must emphasize actual work in

physiology, not simply the usual course. He further believes that

School personnel are largely responsible for the students' mental activity. In turn, it would seem that elementary school counselors and teachers should be reasonably knowledgeable about "mental anatomy." . . . It would seem appropriate (indeed a professional responsibility) for them to possess a reasonable familiarity with the major findings of such professional workers as the neuroanatomist, the neurophysiologist, and related scientists. We could justifiably expect elementary school counselors to possess a systematic, organized conceptual scheme of what it is that makes people behave as they do. This systematic relationale should provide the counselor with a means of predicting behavior. It should, as well, further the counselor's success in creating an environment that would allow students to alter their behavior in effective ways. (Faust, 1968a, p. 241)

All that the elementary school counselor is said to be concerned with--learning, reasoning, judgment, memory, differentiating, ideas, awareness, self-consciousness, sensory impulses, voluntary behavior, emotions, ". . . are largely originated and dealt with within the brain," thus the need for reasonable knowledgeability and understanding of "mental anatomy." (Faust, 1968a, p. 245-246)

Faust (1968a) terms it a professional obligation of teachers and counselors to learn the languages of survival efforts, i.e., extra-verbal and nonverbal communication--not for the purpose of predicting a child's behavior at a statistically significant level on the basis of any or a few of these expressions, but to accomplish more facility at "hearing" all the languages of children.

That professional status is a must for the elementary school counselor has been suggested by many. Faust (1968a) maintains we cannot

tolerate blind allegiance to either behaviorism or humanism and that we cannot risk professional isolationism either.

Van Hoose, Peters and Leonard (1967, p. 4) described counselor preparation:

. . . he is educationally oriented and has a high level of understanding in human growth and development and in the behavior sciences. He has a high degree of competence in counseling children both on an individual basis and in groups.

Caldwell (1966, p. 192) points out that, "a good elementary school guidance program provides a service to teachers as well as pupils." He would have the counselor a widely experienced and highly competent individual at many grade levels as well as on an adult level.

The literature reflects the human characteristics and intensive preparation and training an effective counselor must possess. Edson Caldwell (1966, p. 192) has made a significant point with regard to guidance competencies which

. . . like creativity, cannot be forced, cannot be imitated, cannot be prefabricated. Like good music, however, they must be experienced to be understood and learned in order to be possessed.

Elementary school counselors are described as having had training which should aim them in communicating acceptance and interest in each child (Mendelson, 1968). Hill (1968, p. 8) commented:

Perhaps, above all, the elementary school counselor should be a person of poise, of warmth, of understanding. He will need to be able honestly to accept many unlovely children. He will need also to be able to cope with misunderstandings as to his work and with skepticism as to his worth.

Combs and Soper (1963) listed what they feel are characteristics of the effective counselor. It appears that it is more important to have internalized a particular philosophy of life rather than a set of techniques for optimum effectiveness. Faust (1968a) also commented that the counseling relationship is of more importance than the technique used.

### Research, status and needs

Stefflre (1965, p. 386) reviewed the status of research and reported:

Thus, counseling programs are now found in schools, not because of sound research evidence as to their value, but rather because it is the considered opinion of specialists, teachers, students, administrators and community members that counseling is a worthwhile educational activity.

Research over the past 25 years regarding the changes in behavior due to counseling indicates that counselors have been minimally instrumental in effecting any measurable change in the behavior of people whom they have been counseling (Gilmore, 1967). The evident lack of supporting research evidence seems due, however, to the unique aspects of school situations and the individuals involved. According to Faust (1968a, p. 272), the individual will tend to learn in the directions of the rewards.

. . . but he will do this only in terms of all the variables, including internal ones which are present at the time. And the conditioner simply cannot control all the variables, however sophisticated and pure the research design may be.

Project Director Usitalo (1967) reported that the Olympia program results showed that neither teacher attitudes nor student self concepts were changed significantly. In the preface to his report, he noted, " . . . evaluation connotes cold, hard data. Yet affective results are equally important, but cannot always be measured."

Demos and Benoit (1965) reported that only a small percentage of research being done in the state of California is at the elementary level. Biasco (1969) found in a state-wide survey only in one-fifth of the schools had there been any attempt at research. Attempted research was done without a written plan and was, therefore, haphazard, unsystematic and statistically untreatable. He noted a lack of proper preparation for research activity among teachers as well as counselors.

Dinkmeyer (n.d.) recognized the status of inadequate research. He suggests that unclear nomenclature, trivial generalities of objectives, uncontrolled complex variables, inability to establish control groups, and inadequate samplings have contributed to the present state. Cupp and Fankhauser (1967) alluded to this when they reported that the problems inherent in control group formulation, matching subjects, etc. was felt in some ways to defeat the purposes. They would propose a descriptive rather than a statistical model to expedite more efficient learning in every child.

Krumboltz discussed the future directions for counseling research and stated three propositions.

Proposition I: Counseling research should be designed to discover improved ways of helping clients prevent or learn to solve their problems.

Proposition II: Counseling research should be designed so that different possible outcomes lead to different counseling practices.

Proposition III: Outcome criteria of counseling research should be tailored to the behavior changes desired by the clients and counselors involved. (Krumboltz, 1967, p. 4-8)

Krumboltz has advanced the idea that it will not do any good to find out that counseling as it is presently is slightly better than nothing in helping clients. He suggests that if we did find out that what is being done in counseling is effective, efforts to improve the process might cease. He would have research, " . . . testify that we work for the welfare of the client, not the counselor." (Krumboltz, 1967, p. 6)

" . . . when better ways are developed, far-sighted counselors will eagerly test them, adopt them if they work, and continue to improve them," according to Krumboltz (1967, p. 7-8), who further points out that the " . . . facts we collect should be those which make some kind of difference in what counselors do." The test, he maintains, is what counselors will do differently if the results of research come out one way rather than another. He cautions that " . . . any counseling outcome research with a group of clients must be undertaken with clients all of whom desire to make the same type of behavior change." (Krumboltz, 1967, p. 14)

Some possible fruitful areas for counseling research have been suggested by Krumboltz (1967, p. 21-25), as paraphrased:

1. Alternative ways of establishing the counselor as effective agent of change.

2. Learning the skills of building human relationships.

3. More effective procedures for helping members of specific subpopulations--the culturally disadvantaged and the elementary school child. "Research efforts need to establish the type of behavior change problems presented by elementary school age pupils and to investigate appropriate procedures for helping the children overcome these problems." (Krumboltz, 1967, p. 22)

4. Extrapolating from research in other disciplines suggests artificially inducing stress to investigate ways to reduce hostility and build and increase persistence, frustration tolerance, cooperative behavior and various opinion, attitude and value change.

5. Building a library of effective models such as tapes, films, etc. used for helping various types of students learn various types of behavior, e. g., match problems to models.

6. Improving career decision processes.

7. Preventing problems.

Krumboltz further states, " . . . the development of a sound preventive program must be based on the highest professional ethics, the soundest research design, and the most noble of human motivations." (Krumboltz, 1967, p. 25)

More emphasis seems needed in developing competencies in the consulting role, curriculum and guidance, vocational development for children and the use of referral agencies and community resources, according to Ohlsen (1967), on the basis of his experience in an institute for

prospective elementary school counselors sponsored by the National Defense Education Act (NDEA).

To facilitate counselors in the performance of their functions, there needs to be more research on what can be termed "developmental prevention," and more attention should be given problem prevention--e.g., inappropriate vocational choice, inadequate social relationships, and inadequate learning. There needs to be some research information as to what the unmet needs of elementary school children are, what counseling approaches are appropriate to helping children fulfill these needs. Brown (1968) concluded that there needs to be more understanding of community relations and disadvantaged children.

The personal qualities of the school counselor which facilitate the counseling process should be investigated as well as professional affiliation, role and function, and professional training in terms of meeting the needs of elementary school children.

There are investigations in progress at the present time which will contribute to the fund of knowledge available in the field, one of which is the investigation of the merit of a large group of psychometric items as indicators of behavior change in children, with a means for assessing the effect of guidance upon the personal adjustment of the elementary-age student provided (Wright and others, 1968).



## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

It is the opinion of the writer that, based on a review of the literature as well as experience in educational settings on both an elementary and secondary level, there is a definite need in the elementary school for a catalyst, a specialist, a helper in terms of aid available to child, teacher and/or parent. It is believed that the elementary school counselor can fulfill this role.

The literature points out, however, that at the present time there is a lack of agreed upon principles by which processes and outcomes can be explained. There is an urgent need, therefore, for a model or theory by which the value of elementary school counseling to the child can be explained. Subjective evidence alone will not suffice.

Various approaches to guidance and counseling in the elementary school have contributed to a definition of needs in terms of empirical data. The emerging emphasis is, however, on a developmental approach with the counselor serving as an aid to the enhancement of each child's total development.

Appropriate objectives for the elementary school counselor appear to be fairly well agreed upon by writers. These objectives focus on whole children, although research points out the tremendous importance of optimum development in many areas. That children do differ markedly

one from another is clearly recognized within the framework of these objectives.

There is, however, some disagreement among writers with regard to the functions of an elementary school counselor, perhaps some of which may well be a problem of terminology confusion. It could be that we are in need of a common meaning or understanding for the words we use.

Nevertheless, the literature indicates that at one extreme are those who would have the counselor work in the school solely with "crisis" students on an individual counseling basis. At the other end of the scale are those who would give priority to making consultant or counseling services available to those who have direct contact with children. Of course opinions reflect variations at points between the two extremes.

Writers have identified, however, certain clerical, accounting, administrative and testing responsibilities they feel are unrelated to the counselor's purpose and training. Although there is a lack of clear-cut guidelines as to what the counselor does, it is pretty well defined and agreed upon as to what he does not do.

The uniqueness of the counselor appears to lie in the number and variety of functions he fulfills, functions it is said teachers cannot be expected to fulfill. Thus, his is an added service, i.e., additional manpower, which results in improved guidance services directly and indirectly to childrer. It is the counselor's major responsibility to know about human behavior and interpersonal relationships and how these are related to the child's becoming a more effective learner and the teacher's

becoming a more effective helper. He offers an external view to the classroom situation in cooperatively discovering early problems which may result in serious school adjustment. That is, his training enables him to work with others in understanding and resolving problems that interfere with children's learning.

The elementary school counselor must be well prepared to apply the principles of sound human relationships on an elementary school age level, both individually and in groups. He must be prepared to share his knowledge and work with significant others in the child's life space. It appears he may likely find himself counseling teachers, but he will serve them on a consultant level in any case for economics seem to demand this. The counselor will undoubtedly find that parental involvement in guidance is imperative in the elementary school in view of the fact that parents control more of the child's environment than does anyone in the school. The counselor must be prepared to serve as a teacher educator and/or a parent educator as the need arises. He must possess highly developed communication skills and human characteristics which contribute to effective relationships.

The counselor will be called upon to determine, on the basis of his own philosophy, what functions can most effectively, as well as economically, meet the existing needs unique to the particular system. He may be responsible to coordinate the services the school offers the child. He will be responsible to the individuals he serves, but must merge his role smoothly into the total organizational pattern of the school.

The counselor's value to the program, and thus to the child, will be dependent in large measure upon his acceptance into the school by other members of the organizational team. Of extreme importance is the fact that the principal and teachers must want him. The counselor should be prepared to act, and the staff prepared to accept him as a catalyst, a disturber of the peace.

Following are conclusions in general, as related to the likelihood of better elementary school counselor services.

1. Guidelines for a counselor's work should insure flexibility.
2. Limited responsibility will increase counselor effectiveness.
3. Enrichment is contingent on the testing of ideas that come with new personnel.
4. Research, new and continuing, is vital in guidance programs.
5. An organized program becomes an important factor in increasing teacher involvement in guidance activities.

What is being done now should determine the needs of our schools, the adequacy of our programs, the sufficiency of our staffs, and will determine what, if anything, can be done to systematize and enrich the services the child needs in this complicated and changing world.

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## VITA

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